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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

CALLS FOR BIDS FOR TEXTBOOKS AND TEACHER'S MANUALS IN SCIENCE AND LANGUAGE

At its regular quarterly meeting on January 13, 1950, the State Board of Education, acting on the recommendation of the State Curriculum Commission, authorized the issuance of a call for bids for textbooks and teacher's manuals in the following subjects and grades, for adoption periods of not less than six years nor more than eight years beginning July 1, 1952:

1. Science, grades 1 to 8, inclusive
(The textbooks in science shall include an adequate amount of instructional material in health.)
2. Language, grades 4 to 8, inclusive.

ADOPTION OF TEACHER'S MANUAL IN MUSIC FOR KINDERGARTEN

On January 13, 1950, the State Board of Education, acting on recommendation of the State Curriculum Commission, adopted *Our First Music*, published by C. C. Birchard and Company and previously adopted as a teacher's manual for use in first grade, as a teacher's manual for use in kindergartens maintained in elementary schools in which music instruction is conducted on a graded basis, for a period of not less than six years nor more than eight years beginning July 1, 1950.

THE HELEN HEFFERNAN SCHOLARSHIP

The California School Supervisors Association has announced the establishment of the Helen Heffernan Scholarship in recognition of Miss Heffernan's leadership in education. The purposes of the scholarship are (1) to recruit qualified persons

into the field of supervision and (2) to encourage supervisors to engage in graduate study.

A gift of three hundred dollars is to be awarded annually. A loan, not to exceed one thousand dollars, is to be available in addition to the gift. The loan is to be repaid without interest over a four-year period.

Full-time graduate students or persons contemplating graduate work who are interested in applying for this scholarship should request application forms from Oreon Keeslar, Secretary, California School Supervisors Association, c/o Kern County Superintendent of Schools, 1103 Golden State Highway, Bakersfield, California.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS OF THE CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The following issues of the Bulletin of the California State Department of Education should be of interest to elementary school personnel. Copies for use in public schools are supplied free of charge; otherwise the price per copy is 25 cents (plus sales tax on California orders), with discount of 20 per cent in lots of ten or more. Requests through superintendents of schools will be filled by the Bureau of Textbooks and Publications, State Department of Education, Sacramento 14.

LESLIE BEATTY. *Guide to the Teaching of Arithmetic in Kindergarten and Grades One and Two*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XVIII, No. 8, November, 1949. Sacramento 14: California State Department of Education, 1949. Pp. viii + 76.

This bulletin is designed to help teachers of kindergarten and primary-grade children to teach arithmetic that will function in the everyday lives of children now and in their later lives as adults. It will serve as a guide to the informal introduction of arithmetic prior to the use of more formal textbook materials.

Committees of teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, and college teachers of education in four sections of the state helped in determining the content of the publication. Results of research in child

development and in arithmetic curriculum were analyzed, and materials of instruction prepared by school systems throughout the state were examined and utilized. Illustrative charts and photographs are included.

On recommendation of the California Curriculum Commission, the material in this bulletin was adopted by the State Board of Education as a teacher's manual for use in the public elementary schools of the state.

DOYLE, FRANCIS W. *Questions on the Education of Mentally Retarded Minors in California*. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XIX, No. 1, January, 1950. Sacramento 14: California State Department of Education, 1950. Pp. viii + 48.

This bulletin explains briefly the 1949 additions and amendments to the original 1947 legislation to increase special educational opportunities for educable mentally retarded pupils. It also answers questions commonly asked by school administrators, supervisors, psychologists, and teachers regarding the education of the mentally retarded, such as the following:

Who are the educable mentally retarded minors?

How many of them are there in California?

Who is empowered to establish special training schools and classes for these children?

How may the schools discover and select such pupils?

What are the requirements for school psychologist? school psychometrist? teacher of the mentally retarded?

Where can a school obtain such personnel?

What housing, equipment, and supplies are needed for classes for mentally retarded pupils?

What should be the nature of the curriculum for such pupils?

How can the program be financed?

The bulletin contains a selected bibliography. Education Code provisions relating to the education of mentally retarded minors and the Rules and Regulations of the State Board of Education relating to this subject are set forth in the appendix.

SAFEGUARD FOR CHILDREN

At the 1949 First Extraordinary Session of the California Legislature, the Assembly, on December 16, and the Senate, on December 20, adopted Assembly Concurrent Resolution No. 4,

introduced by Assemblymen Julian Beck of San Fernando, H. Allen Smith of Glendale, and William H. Rosenthal of Los Angeles. The text of this resolution, to which the attention of school personnel throughout California is directed, is as follows:

RESOLUTION CHAPTER 16

Assembly Concurrent Resolution No. 4—Relating to providing instruction for school children to meet the dangers resulting from sex offenses.

WHEREAS, The prevalence and the nature of sex offenses involving children as victims has demonstrated the serious danger to children resulting from this type of offense; and

WHEREAS, Every precaution should be taken to safeguard children from potential or actual sex criminals. It is recommended that instructions similar to those hereinafter outlined be issued for the information of principals, teachers, custodians, and others who are charged with the care of children:

A. Instructions to School Personnel.

1. Be constantly on the lookout for suspicious strangers loitering in or near school buildings, or parked in automobiles nearby.
2. In such cases, tactfully talk to them to determine why the individuals are in the vicinity of the school. If conditions warrant, warn the person that there is a law against loitering in the vicinity of a school.
3. If the actions of the loiterer are definitely suspicious, notify the local police at once, and as soon as possible inform the child welfare and attendance branch of the incident.
4. Establish and maintain cordial relations with your local law-enforcement officials.
5. Work with local civic organizations, parent-teacher associations, and others in formulating plans for insuring the safety of the children in your community.

B. Instructions to Children.

1. Do not take anything such as candy, toys, or money from strangers.
2. Do not talk to strangers on the way to and from school.
3. Do not accept a ride in a stranger's automobile.
4. Do not "thumb" rides at any time.
5. Do not loiter on the way to or from school.

6. If possible, walk to and from school with other children.

7. If a person makes insulting remarks on the way to school, or acts in a bad way, tell your teacher or the crossing guard or policeman if you see one. If some person does this when you are going home, tell your parents at once what has happened. If the person is in an automobile, remember what the car looked like, and try to memorize the license number of the car. Remember what the person looked like and what kind of clothes were worn; now, therefore, be it

Resolved by the Assembly of the State of California, the Senate thereof concurring, That the Superintendent of Public Instruction take all necessary measures to disseminate such instructions to all school personnel, pupils, parent-teachers associations, and other cooperating groups, in order to comply with this resolution; and be it further

Resolved, That the Chief Clerk of the Assembly is directed to transmit a copy of this resolution to the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

CONSERVATION PUBLICATION: *Muddy Water*

At the meeting of the State Curriculum Commission held in Los Angeles on February 15, 1950, official action was taken by the Commission to recommend to the schools of the state a recent publication entitled *Muddy Water*, by Henrie Andrews Howell. This is a 94-page, paper-covered publication (1949) of the Project in Applied Economics prepared under the sponsorship of the Committee on Studies and Standards, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The Project in Applied Economics operates by means of a grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.

The publication is a readable story of the Todd family which moves from the city to an old farm that has run down because of poor farming practices. With the help of an uncle living on a neighboring farm and the advice and help of the soil conservationist, the Todds undertake the rehabilitation of the farm. The story is concerned chiefly with the things done to prevent the erosion of the topsoil. The plot of the story keeps the action moving but does not interfere with the chief function of providing information about the cause and prevention of

erosion. The locale is not specifically defined; the information is general enough to be of interest in any part of the country.

The type is good; the photographic illustrations are excellent. The glossy paper and binding lessen the attractiveness of the publication.

Muddy Water is obtainable from the Project in Applied Economics, 280 Madison Avenue, New York 16, New York. Price: 35 cents each for single copies; 30 cents each for 25 to 99 copies; 25 cents each in lots of 100 copies or more. An 8-page *Teachers' Guide* will be sent free with orders of 25 or more.

NEW WILDLIFE LEAFLETS

A new series of illustrated leaflets on the wildlife of California, written for fourth and fifth grades, is being published by the Division of Fish and Game of the State Department of Natural Resources for distribution to schools through the State Department of Education. The first four leaflets, which have been issued on an experimental basis to test their classroom value in the elementary school program of conservation education and which will be available in quantity during the fall term of 1950, have the following titles:

- No. 1. The California Valley Quail
- No. 2. Trout of California
- No. 3. Salmon of California
- No. 4. The Beaver

Leaflets about pheasants, antelope, and deer are ready for printing. Manuscripts on the striped bass, mackerel, abalone, sardines, tuna, and barracuda are now in preparation. Subjects under consideration for the series include bear, black bass, "pan-fish," "fur bearers," rabbits, ducks, sage grouse, hawks, owls, and the tree squirrel.

Orders for School Wildlife Leaflets should be addressed to the Bureau of Textbooks and Publications, State Department of Education, Sacramento 14.

THE ROLE OF THE PARENT IN RELATION TO PUPILS' READING PROGRESS

WILLIS N. POTTER, *Professor of Education and Psychology,
College of the Pacific*

There is little doubt that as teachers we are still inclined to underestimate the influence exerted by our pupils' home conditions upon all types of school learning, including reading. Although we have moved far from a concept of teaching as ministration to intellectual needs only, and have accepted the principle that physical, emotional, and social development must also be a constant consideration, we are prone to believe that in the few short hours of the week when we have John and Jane in our charge most of their growth takes place—a false assumption, on the face of it. We discount sharply many of the other potent forces that affect the pupils and that perhaps make them what they are, almost in spite of us. In short, we overestimate our own role as *the* teacher, and we undervalue the other "teachers"—the parents, siblings and friends, the playground, streets, and park, the pond, the fields and woods—that play such a vital part (often the *leading* part) in child learning.

If learning may be defined as behavior change resulting from experience in the environment, it is clear that one of the most important aspects of this adjustive behavior is reading. That reading is an extremely complex physical and psychological process would be attested to by teachers and reading specialists alike. And in the development of this process in the individual child, one of the most powerful teaching influences is surely the parent.

The motivation for this paper has its source in (1) the writer's rather recent experience with a number of remedial reading cases—children who indicated varying degrees of serious retardation in reading—and (2) evidence presented by numer-

ous authorities in the field of reading, whose writings are unfortunately not so well known as they should be to some teachers and to most parents.

It would be useful at the outset to state the significant general factors which promote the development of reading abilities and desirable reading interests, to suggest also certain factors which seem to impede such development, and finally to indicate how the parents' role may be related to the factors named.

Among the conditions and circumstances which help the child to become an effective reader, within the limits of his mental ability, are the following:

1. Physical conditions of living, related to the child's general health, nutrition and rest, that will tend to maintain his vitality, energy, and alertness at a reasonably good level.
2. Physical equipment, within a normal range of efficiency, for vision, hearing, and speech.
3. An environment in home, school, and community that may be productive of the assets of emotional stability, a sense of security, optimism, and pleasure in learning.
4. A mode of living which stimulates mental activity, intellectual curiosity, vocabulary growth, and the development of new and ever wider interests and understandings.
5. Opportunities for social experience which will foster self-reliance and individual initiative on the one hand, and desirable attitudes and abilities in group relationships on the other.

Turning to the negative aspects of the problem, we find that factors which may impede or even prevent altogether the acquisition of needed reading skills are almost too numerous to mention in any thoroughgoing way. Furthermore, in the etiology of reading disability it is customary to state that reading problems are produced by "constellations" of factors, some clearly defined, some obscure, all interrelated and interactive, and therefore incapable of being sharply isolated from one another. Also, certain conditions, such as a lack of consistent lateral dominance, are no longer thought to be distinctive traits of poor readers, as was believed at an earlier date, but are placed *among* the factors that possibly affect reading.

With the above considerations kept in mind, the following are presented as potential barriers to good reading. They should be thought of, for the purposes of this article, in terms of what the parents' part might be in prevention or remediation of such conditions.

1. Any visual anomaly, uncorrected or uncorrectable, which renders difficult or impossible the minimum functioning of the eyes necessary to good reading. This classification includes refractive errors, various types of binocular inco-ordination and numerous other visual maladjustments known to the eye specialist.
2. Auditory and articulatory defects which interfere with normal communication and which, in the initial reading stage especially, may make necessary the use of unusual methods of teaching. There is little agreement among the reading specialists as to what amount of hearing loss or what extent of speech difficulty may be said to constitute a real handicap to reading.¹
3. Poor conditions of health, resulting from malnutrition, infections, glandular disturbances, and other disorders, which may act indirectly upon reading progress by causing excessive absence from school or by producing listlessness and inattention of the pupil in the classroom.
4. Neurological difficulties, such as congenital or acquired word-blindness, and lack of lateral dominance. The presence of word-blindness (either dyslexia or alexia) indicates the need for special techniques of teaching beyond the time and resources of most classroom teachers. As for lateral dominance, its relationship to the problems of poor reading has been much less clearly shown.
5. Emotional conditions—feelings of insecurity or inferiority, fears, anxieties and discouragements, withdrawal, overcompensation, and many other aspects of maladjustment. These conditions may be both causes and effects of failure in reading, and they frequently demand specialized clinical attention.
6. Lack of a desire to learn to read (in the primary-grade pupil) or, later, lack of interest in reading after some measure of reading skill has been acquired. This factor is both intellectual and emotional in nature. It may result from a paucity of experiences and oppor-

¹ For a serviceable summary on this point, see Helen M. Robinson, *Why Pupils Fail in Reading*. University of Chicago Press, 1946, Chapter IV.

tunities which would encourage general language growth and accentuate the need for reading. Or it may be the consequence of a negative reaction to reading because of the attitudes of others.

The factor of low intelligence has been purposely omitted from the above listing. There is no doubt about the positive relationship between mental-ability test scores and reading-test scores, since, on the average, the more intelligent can learn to read better. But groups of retarded readers indicate low, medium, and high intelligence in much the same proportions as do groups of unselected readers. The slow learner, given systematic, well-motivated reading experiences, can and does learn to read.

Reviewing these factors and conditions which either promote or handicap good reading, it is clear that the parents have a most significant part to play. What should parents do to carry their share of the responsibility in the reading progress of children? In what ways do parents most frequently fail in this regard? How may parents best be informed of these matters?

The suggestions about to be presented are general in nature, in that they are proposed for the parents of a child of any age. Many of them are applicable, furthermore, not only to reading but to all the other aspects and areas of learning. But in terms of reading, the key to educational advancement and cultural growth, these suggestions may be thought to have special meaning.

To begin with, the parent has an obligation to maintain in his child the best possible physical equipment for reading. This may be no easy thing, involving constant attention to general health and, in some cases, specialized treatment for visual, auditory, or speech conditions. The expense would be far beyond many families' resources, were it not for the services frequently offered by the school, the community, and other agencies. The crux of the matter is parental awareness of pupil needs. Many parents of preschool and primary-grade children have an abundance of affection and concern for their offspring, with a dearth of knowledge about the physical states which handicap school achievement. Even the parents of high school

and college students are not infrequently guilty of underestimating the effects of excessive outside work and resultant over-fatigue upon more advanced study and learning. The fact that father worked his way through college (with tuition at \$150 per year) does not necessarily mean that son should do likewise (tuition, \$550).

Secondly, pupils at all educational levels need the stimulation of genuine, active, continuous parental interest in their reading. This is especially true of the initial reading stage, but too many parents stop there, forgetting that how the child *uses* his reading skill, how it grows with him and he with it, are equally as important as merely beginning to read.

Parental interest may take, in general, two forms: family discussion of reading which the child has done or is engaged in, and provision for desirable (and also, *interesting*) reading matter for the child in the home. Both of these forms are of great value in helping not only to motivate reading activities but also to develop discriminating attitudes regarding reading materials. Of the two means of evidencing interest, parents are inclined to do better with the latter. But many families, it must be said, do badly with both, or choose to leave the whole thing to the school. For parents with limited educational background and poor economic status, this obligation of interest and stimulation is not an easy one to meet. For other parents, there seems to be considerably less excuse for failing to meet pupil needs in this respect.

The attitudes that can grow out of active family interest in the pupil's reading seem to this writer to be of tremendous importance. It is perhaps at home, rather than at school, that the child can best come to realize that reading is useful, reading is pleasureable, and reading is a part of living (not school-living, alone). Such attitudes have a good chance of transfer into adulthood.

Related to the contributions which parental interest may make to pupils' resources for reading are the cultural opportunities available through enlightened family life. Most effective

of these is undoubtedly the experience in language which conversation, play, and many other activities offer in the home. Averill has made a useful list of the language and speech achievements desirable in children at first-grade entrance.² He includes, among other things, familiarity with the simple language of number and of color; memorization and repetition of rhymes, games, and dramatic stories; and the ability to tell of interesting happenings in the child's experience. These achievements are, in fact, aspects of preschool learning and of readiness for reading, which can set the pupil well on his way toward school success.

But the problem of readiness for reading (or for any type of learning) does not cease with the first grade; it continues throughout the individual's educational and vocational life. Therefore, the home and family should continue also their stimulation of his intellectual inquisitiveness, through conversation and discussion where he may have a part and through trips and excursions, whether they be to a nearby field or to Europe.

The enrichment of curriculum should not be confined to the school. The home and family may also offer a program of experiences to the child, informal though they may be, and to these activities he actually gives more time than to those of the school. For language growth and for preparation and on-going motivation for reading, the resources of home and family life have many possibilities of enrichment.

Finally, all parents need to understand more fully the emotional dynamics of the child, the personality needs which require recognition and fulfillment if he is to be happy and successful. The father and mother must see the relationship between mental health and reading achievement, and must realize that what happens in the family environment is likely to be the paramount factor in their child's emotional adjustment. Given the child who, in his home, knows affection, security, confidence, and cheerfulness, the school has a long start in the development of a successful reader.

² L. A. Averill, *The Psychology of the Elementary-School Child*, New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1949, p. 171.

Harris has well described certain of the conditions which one may discover in the home of an emotionally disturbed pupil who is likely to have unusual difficulty in learning to read:

1. A broken home, with one or both parents missing because of separation, military service, death, or other causes. The effect is greatest if the cause of the disruption is one about which the family is ashamed, such as illegitimacy or imprisonment.
2. Dissension or quarrelling between the parents. Emotional tension in the home is felt by the child and makes him insecure and nervous.
3. Poor disciplinary procedures. Home discipline may be harsh and arbitrary, excessively lenient, or inconsistent and unpredictable.
4. Rejection. The child may be made to feel that he is unwanted, a burden, a nuisance, that his parents do not love him. Threats to give a child away or to send him away are often taken seriously by young children, even if the parents do not mean them. The continued feeling of being rejected or disliked by his parents is one of the most damaging experiences that a child can have.
5. Unsuccessful competition with brothers or sisters. In some families the parents openly show favoritism. The child may be exhorted to emulate the favored one until real jealousy and hatred develop. If the favorite is a good student, the other child may become hostile to the school activities because he associates them with the disliked brother or sister.
6. Overprotection. Some mothers gain such satisfaction from taking care of their babies that they are reluctant to see the children grow up. In many little ways they try to keep the child dependent upon them and try to delay each step toward maturity. They usually find fairly plausible excuses behind which to hide their real motives from others, and sometimes even from themselves.³

To these causes of emotional disturbance in the child may be added the overanxiety, oversolicitude and outright distress of some parents whose son or daughter fails to do well in reading. Such parents react in a manner which only complicates and aggravates the pupil's difficulty. He is likely to respond by withdrawing from the reading situation and by adopting a defeatist attitude toward reading and all related activities. When once

³ A. J. Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability*. New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1947, pp. 36-37.

a pupil feels wholeheartedly that he cannot learn to read, or that he does not wish to read, he becomes a case of severe disability that will require special and possibly long-term treatment, no matter how adequate his intelligence, physical characteristics, or other traits.

It is a difficult task for some families to remedy such circumstances as these which so deeply affect the emotional well-being of the children. Yet parents need to be informed that there is no alternative—that a readjustment of their own personal lives, involving self-evaluation and rigorous efforts at self-discipline, may be the price they must be ready to pay for their children's contentment and success. It is not too great a price, according to the judgment of adults worthy of their parenthood.

How may we make known to parents the ways by which they can promote and stimulate their children's reading growth? The methods will be those employed wherever good home-school relationships are set up and maintained. They require no detailed discussion here.⁴ Suffice it to say that no written reports, however well done, are enough. There must be a continuous, co-operative effort by the classroom teacher, the principal, the visiting teacher, the psychologist (if any is available), the attendance counselor, and the school physician and nurse, to keep the parent well informed about the child's status in reading, about any problems that may beset him, whether they be physical, emotional, intellectual, or social, and about all possible family contributions to his reading welfare. This is especially true for the retarded reader, but it is true for *all* readers. Much of this parent-teacher contact must take the form of personal conference, if adequate and satisfying relationships are to be maintained.

Most important of all, the school needs to break down any barriers of distrust, suspicion, or blame that may exist. Educational as well as parental mistakes seem almost inevitable in relation to reading, and somebody is to blame. But blame does no one any good, least of all the pupil. The essential task is to examine

⁴ The reader is referred to Inga Carter McDaniel's article, "Establishing Effective Home-School Relationships," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, February, 1948, pp. 160-175.

the difficulty in open, frank discussion, to propose and carry out constructive measures, to create understanding, and to see that the mistakes, if any, are perpetuated neither at school nor at home.

The following are excerpts from reports of teacher-clinicians at the conclusion of a five-week period of individualized work with retarded readers of elementary-school age. These reports are indicative of the importance of the parents' part in relation to the reading problems of these pupils, who were typical of the group receiving reading-clinic instruction and participating in the concomitant activities.

. . . The essential thing to do for A is to give him security and confidence in himself. He needs to feel secure with his family, and especially with his father. Because of pressure of other things, the father has not given the boy a large enough place in his life. The father is a very fine person, and has not realized what he was doing to A's personality. . . .

B needs more experiences to counteract the fact that he lives in an isolated place and without companions of his own age. More education in the home seems essential. B will profit by a constructive program of interesting materials to stimulate his curiosity and lead him to enjoy the activity of reading. His parents should be urged to take him to a variety of places and to encourage him to talk about his experiences. He needs the addition of hundreds of words to his vocabulary. . . .

C lacks confidence in herself. She feels inferior to her classmates and doesn't want to read orally in the class. Her parents are perhaps over-protective, overanxious about her retarded reading. They should be cautioned not to make negative criticisms to the child, nor to "pressure" her. They should strive to build up her self-confidence by allowing her more freedom to do things for herself. . . .

. . . D is certainly not up to the reading level where he should be, judging by his mental age, superior background and native intelligence. There is possibility of a deep-seated emotional block, resulting from alternate overindulgence and a feeling of rejection. The home situation indicates a lack of that close personal relationship so necessary to a child. Even though all material things are given freely and there seems no lack of deep affection, the child misses something which he craves. . . .

In this writer's experience, the counseling and instruction of parents are vital aspects of the treatment in nearly all the cases

of serious disability that reach reading clinics. This is as it should be, since corrective treatment cannot rightly stop with the clinic and the school.

It seems justifiable to view with considerable optimism this whole matter of reading instruction. Classroom teachers are becoming increasingly well equipped in their techniques and understandings of developmental reading, with the resultant possibility that we shall make fewer mistakes than previously in helping children to read. At the same time, teachers are gaining new insight into the problems of the retarded reader. Principals, visiting teachers, psychologists, nurses, and other school personnel have become aware of the complex nature of reading and its difficulty for many pupils. Consultant and clinical services in school and community are being greatly expanded. All these agencies are better prepared than ever before to help parents to understand and assume the responsibility which they must share in relation to the reading progress of the children. But much still remains to be done in this regard, before home and school, working closely together, can feel that they are meeting all their obligations for pupil welfare in reading.

PROBLEMS OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN ART EDUCATION

Report of the CO-OPERATING GROUP, SAN JOAQUIN SECTION,
COMMITTEE ON ART EDUCATION,
California School Supervisors Association, HELEN B. DOOLEY, *Chairman*

Good planning for either an in-service growth program or the pre-service educational program in art for teachers depends upon a clear and realistic knowledge of teachers' problems. These problems reveal the needs that teachers feel as they work with children, indicating, at least to some extent, the competencies which are most useful to them for teaching art. They also reflect the philosophy of art education that determines the practice of teachers. Any effective program of growth in insight and techniques must start with present needs and understandings.

To find out what questions teachers have about art teaching in the elementary grades, the Committee on Art Education of the California School Supervisors Association undertook a survey in five cities and counties of the San Joaquin Valley. Lists of questions were received from approximately 350 classroom teachers in these centers, with a total of about nine hundred questions. Questions were written directly by the teachers—not taken verbally nor restated.

The following outline shows the headings under which most of these questions arranged themselves and indicates the number of questions received referring to each topic. They are listed in order of importance to teachers, insofar as this is indicated by their frequency.

<i>A. Questions about teaching methods: how to teach art</i>	<i>Number of Questions</i>
1. Classroom organization—distribution of materials, how to work in crowded rooms, lack of materials, lack of time....	66
2. How to develop children's originality.....	49

	<i>Number of Questions</i>
3. How to present art lessons.....	48
4. How to develop children's interest and self-confidence....	45
5. How to evaluate the art work of children.....	45
6. How to teach art so that pupils will get satisfaction from results and growth in achievement.....	36
7. How to teach children of various levels of ability.....	18
 Total questions	 307

B. *Questions about art curriculum: what to teach and when*

1. What to teach in specific grades, standards, time allot- ments	115
2. Correlation of art with other subjects.....	46
3. Place of copying, coloring, directed work.....	40
4. Media to use for specific purposes.....	11
5. What to do about room borders.....	8
 Total questions	 220

C. *Questions about art techniques and principles: how to teach
certain phases of art*

1. Composition, art principles, drawing, mural methods.....	66
2. Handling various art media—chalk, finger paint, and others	40
3. Figure drawing	33
4. Color	30
5. Perspective	25
6. Craft ideas, where to obtain materials, how to use them...	25
7. Animal drawing	19
8. Watercolor and tempera	19
9. Painting, crafts, and construction for primary grades.....	19
10. Lettering	12
11. Design—principles and applications.....	9
12. Clay	7
13. Where to find examples to show pupils.....	5
 Total questions	 309

What conclusions are evident from the total group of questions?

1. There was a great similarity in the questions received from all of these areas. Evidently these questions represent the common needs of teachers in this section of the country.
2. These questions seem to indicate that although the average classroom teachers know little about art teaching, they know enough about the modern philosophy to realize their needs and to ask pertinent questions.
3. It appears that teachers in this section may lack training to do an adequate job of art teaching in the elementary grades. Both teacher-training classes and in-service programs should give more help on methods of teaching, content of the art curriculum, and art techniques.
4. Crowding of classrooms, as well as inadequacy of facilities and materials, presents major problems in certain areas. This seems to indicate that those responsible for building and equipment do not see clearly the need for art facilities or for the development of the art program in the curriculum.
5. Lack of real understanding of modern methods for developing creative art is apparent in the questions on how to develop originality, as well as in those involving the place of copying and of directed work in art teaching. Teachers seem to know that they should develop originality and free expression in children, but they do not know how to do this.
6. The problem of what to teach at specific grade levels seems to be very important to the average teacher. Evidently supervisors and college departments should offer more help to teachers in solving this problem.
7. Problems related to drawing and the handling of various art media show teachers' lack of confidence in this area. It may be that teachers have a mistaken idea of the importance of drawing as compared to a more varied and useful application of art in living. Perhaps they feel they must teach children to draw instead of allowing them to

express ideas in other ways. It may be that the fundamentals of drawing have not been presented in teacher-training classes in a way that children or even teachers can understand—or perhaps they have not been presented at all.

8. There were practically no questions on art appreciation or art in daily living. Perhaps this indicates lack of emphasis on these phases by teacher-training institutions or supervisors.
9. The fact that good supervision increases awareness of significant problems in art education was shown in the responses from the various centers included in the study. Large numbers of questions on phases of art education that were receiving current emphasis by supervisors in a particular section were asked by teachers in the schools of that section.

OPERATING TEN FIRST-GRADE CLASSES WITH ONLY FIVE CLASSROOMS

HAROLD SPEARS, *Assistant Superintendent in charge of Elementary Education, San Francisco Public Schools*

Ten first-grade classes with five first-grade classrooms was the 2 to 1 formula that faced Principal Mary Nolan and her staff at the Visitacion Valley Elementary School in San Francisco in 1948 as the opening of the new school year drew near. The easiest solution to the problem was to keep half of the children at home in the morning and the other half at home in the afternoon; in other words, double shift.

That type of thinking was easy. Double-shifting was being done all over America in overcrowded schools. But Miss Nolan wasn't one to fall for the easiest solution. She had served the Valley for many years and had seen it grow from a secluded and peaceful little community on the southern border of San Francisco to one of the city's most thriving, bulging neighborhoods. She had served the parents of many of the present crop of school children. The war had brought workers, a federal housing project, and many babies to Visitacion Valley. The principal had made school adjustments before. She had always taken care of all the new children. She had never turned one away.

The cafeteria space had long since been given over to classrooms. Then the library and the storage rooms were taken over by classes. The auditorium was finally partitioned into three classrooms. But still the children came. The new bungalows that had been promised for use in the fall had been delayed. They would not be ready for another six months after the opening of school. In the meantime, the problem of fitting ten first-grade classes into five rooms was inescapable.

FACING THE PROBLEM

In a late August conference on the problem, an inventory was taken of the factors in the situation. Besides ten classes and five classrooms there were also ten willing teachers, far-better-than-average climate, and plenty of space around the school. Out of the thinking of all concerned came what might be called the "in-and-out-of-school program." Two classes would use each room together, one being outdoors with its teacher while the other was inside. The schedules of the two groups were as follows:

The morning-in groups

9:00-11:45 classroom work

11:45-12:45 lunch (outside)

12:45- 2:30 outdoor program

The morning-out groups

9:00-10:45 outdoor program

10:45-11:45 lunch (outside)

11:45-2:30 classroom work

Herbert C. Clish, City Superintendent of Schools, has encouraged this program from the time it was merely a conference-table idea.

A meeting at the school for planning the program, held just before the opening of school, brought together the ten teachers,¹ the principal, the general supervisors, and the special supervisors of art, music, and physical education. Ideas were pooled. In the meantime a letter was sent home to the parents of the first-grade children, explaining the problem and the plan.

Community agencies in the neighborhood, such as the Community Center and the City Recreational Department, consented to offer their facilities for shelter in case the study groups were ever caught outside in inclement weather.

¹ The ten teachers who have operated the "in-and-out program" are Donna Anderson, Mary Barber, Natalie Kennedy, Virginia Sullivan, Virginia Magri, Emelia Restani, Zella Hengel, Chrysal Nicoletti, Louise Galli, and Eleanor Orsi.

THE PROGRAM

Due to the fact that the school entrance age in California is 5 years and 6 months, much of the first semester's work in grade one must consist of activities in art, music, literature, science, health, language, and social studies that will eventually lead into reading, number, and writing programs when the children have acquired sufficient maturity to make these skills meaningful to them. First-grade teachers are in need of interesting activities for their groups.

It is surprising how many educationally profitable things can be found for children to do outdoors, when an enterprising teacher is on hand. The ten "walking classrooms" have found much to see and talk about, much that has been carried back into the classroom work. For example, here is a typical co-operative story of an outdoor class period:

*We went to a nursery.
George saw many red roses.
Joseph saw many green plants.
We saw cabbages and beans.
We saw many pretty flowers.
We saw brown chickens.
We saw white chickens.
Stephen saw a dirt-loader.
We would like to visit the nursery again.*

BESIDE THE NURSERY

The nursery, just two blocks from the school, proved to be one of the most interesting sources of experience. As reported by one teacher, it even called for a bit of clearing up of misconceptions. One child, on the first trip past the glass hothouses, told his mates, "This is where they keep the babies."

Some of the most promising outcomes of the walks in the neighborhood, as reported by one of the teachers, were the following:

1. Having a greater interest in the things commonly taken for granted, such as mailboxes, fire-alarm boxes, street names, house numbers, and safety signs.

2. Wanting to know the reason for things, for instance, "Why is the moon in the sky during the day?"
3. Clearing up misconceptions, such as the one about the nursery.
4. Learning to respect the property of others, not to walk on lawns, and not to pull flowers.
5. Appreciating care of homes, learning to admire clean, well-kept yards and property.
6. Taking the responsibility of leadership for the group. "Good leaders always stop at a street crossing; good leaders are always in front of the line; good leaders do not run." (Leaders in this class keep their position for one week, unless demoted for violation of the rules; then they go to the end of the line as rear guards and the next couple move up to assume leadership.)
7. Finding answers to questions through interviews. The pupils have talked to the street cleaner about his rotating brooms; to the construction crew about the names of their machines, and why they were digging in the street; and to the men who were stenciling the safety signs on the street near the school.

Much discussion concerning nature study occurred during the walks. The outdoor experiences were carried back into the classroom program, as indicated by the co-operative story already quoted. Science tables displayed samples of shrubs, trees, flowers, and seeds.

The co-operative stories written around the outside observation were usually illustrated. Other indoor art work reflected the outdoor program. However, one teacher observed that when her children painted freely in the classroom they reverted to the symbolic level.

The close interest in the steam shovel at work on a near-by lot led to the reading of *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*.¹ The children learned of the many types of shovels and found that the one they had observed was really a Diesel shovel.

"Little Black Bug" and "Fuzzy Caterpillar" were two poems that were related to outside observations, as well as stories about ladybugs, butterflies, pill bugs, and grasshoppers.

¹ Virginia Lee Burton, *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Pp. 48.

Some of the dramatization that ordinarily would have been done indoors became an outside activity. For instance, "The Three Little Pigs" and "Little Red Riding Hood" were staged by one class on a near-by hillside.

Playing games, reading stories, singing songs, doing drills and games for number work, observing and discussing cattle on the hillside, learning traffic safety, observing tree and hill formations, noticing coloring in nature, and practicing good manners in public have been common activities outside the building.

Most of the teachers were surprised to find so much material for number work in the neighborhood. Children and houses have been counted. Number lessons have been taken from the street numbers on the houses and on the license plate numbers of parked automobiles. Leaves and petals have been counted on the plants in the fields. Oral counting by 2's, 5's, and 10's has been done during neighborhood hikes. Cards, balls, and bean bags have found their place in outdoor number work.

Vocabulary was extended noticeably. "Flats," "apartments," "houses," and "project homes" are now common words in the language of most of the children. The various materials of construction were also noted.

Centers of interest visited on foot in the Visitacion Valley neighborhood have included the firehouse, the library, the grocery store, a farm, the railroad yards, the bank, the nursery, the parks, and the school building project.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

The in-and-out program is a real boon to effective teaching of first-grade children in the first semester. The early entrance age of 5 years 6 months that is specified by California law requires a broad experience program for the first grade. In this respect the lack of rooms at Visitacion Valley has been an educational blessing in disguise. The second-semester work in the classrooms reflected the benefits of this outside program.

The "out" part of the in-and-out program has presented its difficulties. For instance, there were wet lawns, no places to sit

down at times, tired little legs when the walks were too long, limited lavatory facilities, unrest in the afternoon classroom after prolonged outside activity, and the insecurity some children feel in not having a "home base" at their disposal all day. Teachers working in such a program must appreciate the physical limitations of the five- and six-year-olds and set the activities accordingly.

Some of the parents at times doubted the advisability of so much outside work, but of course they have not had the chance to experience the alternative of having their children at home half the day. For the most part, the patrons of the school have supported the plan.

The teachers, generally, feel that the group that has the room in the morning has an educational advantage over the one that does not come into the room until afternoon. But at the same time they recognize the enrichment that comes from the neighborhood activities.

Likewise, there is apt to be confusion in going and coming when two groups and two teachers use the same room. Especially, the teachers of the upper first-grade classes feel a pressure of time in accomplishing the more formal work that their children are ordinarily ready for.

Success in this type of program calls for a certain temperament in a teacher, for it is a program that only the imaginative and the energetic teacher can capitalize upon. Once in their new rooms, it is almost certain that most of the teachers will not be content to limit their outdoor program to the recess periods. Five months in the open will have left its imprint upon their methods. The outdoors will continue to come into the classroom activities.

What about the future of Visitacion Valley? This school of over a thousand children is one of San Francisco's 86 public elementary schools. The stork was no stranger in the Valley during the war. When the new unit of primary rooms was completed, the in-and-out program was concluded. However, the experiment was successful enough to commend the idea to other school systems.

San Francisco has grown from 600,000 to near 800,000 since the beginning of World War II. Furthermore, birth rates have been high. But the school system has not double-shifted during this emergency and will never do so. It is proud of this record and will fight to maintain it. School buses transport older children from crowded areas to vacant classrooms in the sections of town less blessed with children. The citizens went to the polls in November, 1948, and approved, four-to-one, a bond levy of \$48,875,000 for new school buildings.

EDUCATING FOR GOOD LAND USE

C. E. Fox, *Educational Adviser, U. S. Department of Agriculture,
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Conservation means different things to different people: to some it means preserving a beautiful redwood grove for posterity; to others it means increasing the number of game birds or game animals or trout; to those who love the wilderness it means setting aside wild land and keeping it forever wild. Others are interested in developing a single area for a variety of uses. In its broad sense, conservation means *intelligent use of natural resources*.

Principles have been established, based upon the facts of science, that all conservationists ought to be able to agree upon, more or less. Conservation in California will be strengthened by the unity and support of sincere, forward-looking citizens when they can agree upon a core of mutually-acceptable policies.

NOW IS THE TIME TO START

Everywhere in the world natural resources have been depleted by reckless exploitation that has ignored nature's laws. This depletion has been accelerated by the drain of two world wars. Increases in population have caused increased demands upon resources. These two forces have brought mankind to a critical point. The challenge of our time is the need to arrest and reverse certain trends that threaten the very existence of civilization.

In some parts of the world millions of people are doomed—perhaps forever—to live below a tolerable level of subsistence. Nowhere in the world has a proper living standard been achieved for everyone. Moreover, mankind is oppressed by fear of further wars. The "have" nations struggle to insure that they shall keep

their wealth, while the "have not" nations seek for means to increase theirs, at the expense of others if necessary. Much of this fear and apparent greed originates in hunger and want, wherein lie the seeds of disorder. Conservationists believe that a desirable degree of well-being throughout the world can be achieved by intelligent development, utilization, and protection of natural resources, provided a prompt start is made and the program is rigidly adhered to.

Conservationists believe that present knowledge, although not complete, is nevertheless sufficient for devising effective conservation measures and applying them successfully. They also believe that lack of final answers must not prevent building upon what is already known and starting the trend toward rounding the corner of a national awakening. The broad objective should be to develop in all citizens "a feeling of stewardship and personal responsibility toward the land." We in the United States still have a stockpile of resources. We have not yet hit the bottom of the barrel, even though we are headed in that direction. Before we reach it we must take stock of our situation and see what can be done about it. In California, particularly, there has been a great natural treasure to draw upon. The problems here are critical chiefly because of a large population and an enormous demand for water. We have a responsibility to our country and to the world for leadership in meeting the challenge, a responsibility that may not be avoided nor escaped.

With this background in mind, let us examine the principles of land use that must be applied to put us or keep us on the safe road to permanent well-being.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF GOOD LAND USE

To begin with, the basic resources are soil and water. Without them life is impossible. Soil and water allow plants, trees, shrubs, grass, and weeds to grow. From these plants we get food, shelter, clothing, and fuel. In today's way of living, minerals are essential. However, they are not basic in the sense that life depends upon them, except the soil minerals necessary to sustain

health; neither are wildlife and recreational resources basic in that sense, nor are they essential. They do, however, add much to our living. Let us look at some of the principles of land use that should be observed with each of these kinds of resources. The following are offered as suggesting certain fundamental principles that cannot be ignored in a discussion of what is considered good land use.

Soil

1. The surface "skin" of the soil is the part upon which we depend not only for prosperity but for our very lives. Compared to the crust of the earth this skin is infinitesimal; it is only a few inches thick. The most productive part is at the surface; at a depth of three feet, nutritious elements are practically nonexistent. It is this skin which we must safeguard.

2. Land should be classified on the basis of characteristics of soil, slope, and degree of or susceptibility to erosion, and each class should be managed for the purpose for which it is best adapted.

3. Erosion, by wind or by water, is either geologic or man-caused. Geologic erosion by soil is a slow, natural process that can seldom be controlled to any extent by man. Man-caused (accelerated) erosion is caused by stripping the land of its grass and forest cover; this can be controlled by proper practices in the first place, or by proper restoration methods if the land has been abused.

The following are some of the means that should be used for controlling erosion on *wild* lands:

- a. Building check dams in small gullies to reduce the velocity of water in run-off
- b. Planting gullies with shrubs or small trees or seeding with grasses to form a natural protective cover
- c. Restoring natural cover of grass, weeds, shrubs, or trees on watersheds (for example, sowing of mustard as a first-aid measure on areas recently burned by forest fires)
- d. Regulating the amount and kind of land use permitted in accordance with steepness of slope and soil characteristics

The following are some of the means that should be used for controlling erosion on *cultured* lands:

- a. Terracing
- b. Plowing on the contour levels instead of uphill and down
- c. Strip cropping (leaving strips of nontilled vegetation between strips of land plowed on the contour)
- d. Fallowing and then plowing under crops to add bulk and substance to the soil

Forests

1. A permanent forest cover should be maintained on all areas that are better suited for the growing of timber than anything else, for the following purposes:

- a. To safeguard water supplies
- b. To produce timber
- c. To provide a favorable environment for fish, birds, and wild animals
- d. To provide opportunities for recreation
- e. To produce forage for wild and domestic animals in the forest openings

2. Forests must be managed as a crop under sustained-yield forestry methods in order to meet our increasing need for timber. The annual cut on an area should not exceed the annual growth once the virgin forest has been logged.

3. All cutting is not "bad." Virgin stands are normally unhealthy, and stagnant as far as net growth is concerned. Cutting supplies the "treatment."

4. In virgin forests, cutting must exceed annual growth if great natural losses are to be prevented. This cut, however, *must be spread over enough acres* to leave an adequate residual stand. Today in California it is the too-heavy cut per acre that is serious, not the total annual cut.

5. A tremendous timber waste results from fires, logging and milling, and attacks by insects and disease. This waste must be reduced.

6. All forces do not work to "unbalance nature." Among those that should be recognized as working towards restoring and maintaining a balance are the following:

- a. Plant succession (the tendency of plant growth to establish itself on bare ground or in openings, and to move successively, as species change, toward a "climax" or stable type of vegetation)
- b. Natural resistance and reproductive capacity of plants to counteract trampling, disease, cutting, grazing, and unfavorable climatic and soil factors
- c. Wilderness areas, remote from roads

7. With proper management, nature's ability to produce can be increased. For example, properly managed forests can be made to produce a harvest of wood two to five times as fast as a virgin forest.

8. Once-productive forest land (1½ million acres in California), improperly logged, much of it burned, must be restored to producing condition through reforestation.

Forage

1. Green things alone can make their own food, from soil minerals, water, and air, by the action of chlorophyll in the presence of sunlight. The chain of dependencies is as follows: soil feeds grass; grass is eaten by cattle; cattle are eaten by man; man and animals depend upon plants for food; plants depend upon soil minerals, on water, air, and sunlight; decayed plant and animal matter return to replenish the soil.

2. Overgrazing in forests may destroy tree seedlings and undergrowth and may cause loss of topsoil, with permanent damage to the plant cover. If forests are properly grazed, little or no damage results.

3. Practices that progressively reduce the quality and character of species and that rob the soil of fertility may be as serious as those that result in actual movement or loss of soil, even though they are not so obvious in their encroachment. California, like other western states, has suffered tremendous, unspectacular losses of this sort.

Water

1. Water control begins on the headwaters of streams. "Rule the mountain and you rule the river." No substitute has yet been found for a thick vegetative cover on a watershed as insurance for a safe, reliable supply of water; or as a regulator of stream-flow, reducing the hazards of flood and drought.

2. The action of water must be controlled so that erosion is prevented, silting minimized, and flooding and drought reduced. Control means maintenance of protective cover on headwaters of streams, with insistence upon proper practices in all farming, grazing, logging, and recreation use.

3. Control structures, such as check dams, reservoirs, and levees, should be constructed where necessary, but it must be recognized that there is a limit to accomplishment by man-made structures downstream.

4. Planning for water production is interrelated with the welfare and livelihood of individuals, industries, and communities (including power, irrigation, navigation downstream, recreation, fish and wildlife, domestic and industrial supplies). Long-range planning in drainage basins is therefore essential, with close co-ordination between Federal, State, and local governments. Planning must take into consideration the full route of moisture from the fall of rain or snow to eventual consumption, or ending in the sea.

5. Lands unsuited for permanent, private ownership should be shifted to public ownership. These include chiefly semiarid, marginal, rough, or isolated lands.

6. Waste of water must be reduced. This may be accomplished by one or more of the following procedures:

- a. Capping wild artesian wells and limiting the number of new wells to those definitely needed
- b. Using water over again whenever possible
- c. Considering the ultimate effect of lowering the water table when planning to drain swamps and ponds or to install roadside ditches

- d. Lining ditches and canals with concrete, or using tile instead of open ditches
- e. Using water efficiently, particularly when irrigating
- f. Holding water in the soil and replenishing underground sources through maintenance of an adequate protective forest cover and practicing measures such as water-spreading (running water through lateral ditches in gravel beds at the mouths of streams)

7. Pollution must be controlled and reduced by proper disposal of garbage, sewage, mining and factory wastes so as to extend recreation, benefit fish life, remove health hazards, and improve the landscape. Pollution control will require in many instances the expansion of water-treating facilities.

8. The recreation possibilities of storage reservoirs for fishing, boating, bathing, and camping should be utilized to the fullest extent.

Wildlife

1. Fish, birds, and wild animals have important economic and social-esthetic values. Farmers should recognize the importance of each of these as a useful and valuable kind of crop. They supply food for his table. The sale of pelts and hides and of rights for shooting, fishing, and trapping are possible sources of cash income. Certain birds and mammals are among the best and cheapest pest-and-rodent controllers in the world. Beavers are assets to any farm as soil and water conservers.

2. In our desire to have more and more wild creatures, we must realize that "cropping" is necessary to maintain the vigor and health of the species. The total amount of available food for wildlife is limited. Wild things produce young; if the population of wildlife is to be kept in balance with its available food supply, man must control the natural increase by harvesting this "crop," within limits.

3. Improvement of the habitat is of lasting benefit to wildlife and should be one of the basic objectives of wildlife management. We can learn to associate new meanings with ordinary,

familiar landmarks. Woodlots, fence rows, brush piles, marshes, cornshocks, streams, and stream banks become significant as homes for fish, birds, and wild animals. Indiscriminate "burning-off" of woods and brush can be stopped; undergrowth can be looked upon as having values for food and shelter; overgrazing by domestic stock can be avoided.

4. Education, research, and technical skill must be applied in greater degree to the management of wildlife. Misguided or uninformed sentiment and the use of pressure tactics will not solve successfully any problem that is essentially scientific in nature. Surveys, studies, and census-taking are the backbone of sound wildlife management.

5. Such measures as bag and creel limits, limitation of length of open seasons, and closures of certain areas are useful management procedures. They should be used with great flexibility to increase or reduce wildlife populations, to influence the ratio between numbers of males and females, and the like.

Recreation

1. Recreation is one of the most important businesses in California from an economic standpoint.

2. The need for wild land for recreation and for its scenic and historical values becomes increasingly important and sometimes transcends other values in certain locations, due to pressure of population, improved roads and transportation, more leisure, and the strain of urban living.

3. On most wild lands recreation can be managed so as not to be in conflict with other uses such as timber cutting, grazing, water storage, agriculture, or mining. Conversely, these uses must be managed so as to conflict as little as possible with recreation. Some of our land must be kept inviolate as wilderness in its natural state, where developmental use of any kind is not permitted.

4. Our scenic and esthetic resources must be preserved through teaching good manners in the outdoors. Education is necessary for those who own and manage recreation facilities so that standards of esthetics are raised and a sense of responsibility

achieved. The public using these facilities must be educated to an appreciation of values in the outdoors.

Minerals

1. Minerals are exhaustible and nonreplacable. Minerals are unevenly distributed throughout the world. Nations have them or do not have them; they cannot be grown. Minerals occur in great variety and in varying quantities; conservation procedures must also vary. Supplies of some minerals are almost limitless; supplies of others are almost exhausted.

2. We must use carefully the minerals of which we are short, conserving domestic supplies by every means at our disposal the supplies of those which are short; and importing essential minerals of which our supply is short.

3. We must encourage or discourage discoveries of new sources and establishment of new mining operations, depending upon need and price of the minerals involved.

CONCLUSION

All sorts of forces are operating today, as they have always operated, to neutralize efforts in the direction of intelligent living with our environment.

We can hardly call ourselves mature people until we accept, and practice, the broad principles of conservation as a national way of life; they form the substance upon which all real natural-resource education rests:

1. Democratic institutions as we know them would not exist without an abundance of natural resources.
2. Nations decline when their resources are gone.
3. Education, research, and knowledge must take the place of ignorance, emotion, and selfishness in dealing with our natural resources.
4. A feeling of stewardship and personal responsibility toward the land must be developed in every individual.
5. Our citizens and our government must be motivated by a desire to see that the best interests of all the people are served in the long run.

HAWTHORNE ESTABLISHES A PARENT-ADMINISTRATIVE COUNCIL

OLIVER McCAMMON, *Superintendent, Hawthorne Elementary School District*, and GRACE L. HENDRICKSON, *Principal, Hawthorne Intermediate School, Hawthorne*

A major objective in the administration of the Hawthorne Elementary School District since 1943 has been to break down the barrier which has existed for a long time between home and school.

In 1944 it became apparent that a new type of report to parents was needed. A beginning in this direction was made when the parent-teacher conference was instituted as one of the school's reports to parents. Teachers and administrators alike were gratified at the response of the parents to this program. The conference provided an opportunity for parents to come to school without feeling that they were in the way or that their children were in trouble. The school had invited them because the school valued their help and suggestions.

The next step in breaking through the traditional barrier came with a series of teas to which parents of kindergarten and first-grade children were invited by their children's teachers. At first the teas were simply get-acquainted affairs, but when the school people realized that the parents were eager to learn more about the school matters which their children discussed at home each evening, it was decided that each meeting of parents with teachers should be planned around some one phase of the school curriculum. Meetings of small groups of mothers were arranged in which discussion was centered around the reading-readiness program and the reasons for teaching manuscript writing. Other questions concerning the school program were answered as they came up during the meetings.

Several school principals in the district attended a conference on the "community-school" and returned full of enthusiasm for the establishment of a parent-administrative council. Other principals questioned whether the administrative group would be attempting, in the formation of such a council, a plan which they might not be able to carry through. After all, criticism of the schools could often be overheard on the streetcars, in the markets. Now, if the parents were to be invited to participate in determining school policies, what sort of things might they have to say? Besides, the district was financially poor, with no special consultants on its staff, and the proposed project would require the superintendent and the principals to carry this additional responsibility. However, two members of the staff of the county superintendent of schools—a co-ordinator of curriculum and a co-ordinator of research and guidance—offered encouragement and advice, and early in 1947 plans were made for a series of meetings with parents to be held during the school year 1947-48.

Since careful planning would be necessary for each meeting in the series, it was decided that the administrative council of the district should confer with the two co-ordinators from the county superintendent's office a week or two before each meeting with the parents. The decision was also made to invite to the meetings the president and the parent-education chairman of each parent-teacher organization in the district. The meetings were scheduled for 9:30 a.m.

The first meeting of the Parent-Administrative Council was held in November, 1947. It was presided over by the district superintendent of schools. The parent-teacher conference plan of reporting to parents was discussed, and many helpful suggestions were contributed by the parents. Everyone was enthusiastic over plans for future meetings.

The health program was the topic for the second meeting. The facilities provided for children with special needs were also discussed. Consultants at this meeting were the two school nurses and the two home teachers of the district.

"How Children Learn to Read," the topic of the third meeting, proved to be of such interest to the parents that it was decided to devote the next two meetings to the reading program. A visit to a first-grade classroom to study the methods used by a teacher in beginning reading had meaning for those parents who had a background of understanding developed in previous meetings. During the demonstration, a group of children and the teacher built a reading chart about a common experience and read from booklets and primers while other children took turns painting, working with clay, and engaging in various independent activities. A discussion period led by the superintendent and the curriculum co-ordinator followed the observation.

An eighth-grade classroom was the scene of the next meeting of the Council. The members observed the teacher as she developed reading skills among these older children. Again, the observation was followed by discussion.

An explanation of the spelling program was given at the final meeting of the group. Reasons for difficulties in spelling were given. The State spelling textbook was distributed and its use discussed. Some time was spent in a discussion of phonics.

An attractive mimeographed booklet entitled "Parents' Questions about Beginning Reading" was compiled to summarize the questions that had been raised by the parents regarding the reading activities of children, and a copy was given to each member of the Parent-Administrative Council. It was decided that this booklet should be given to the parents of first-grade children as they met with the teachers in the fall.

The members of the group pronounced themselves in favor of continuing the Council during the following school year. It was considered advisable to enlarge the group by inviting all the parent-teacher association officers from each school and other interested persons to attend meetings. In a district which has difficulty in finding enough room for the regular classes in its schools, this decision presented a problem in housing.

At the first meeting of the Council for 1948-49, held in October, 1948, the district superintendent of schools discussed

the building program. Plans were shown, the State formula used in allocating funds to distressed school districts was explained, and time was given for questions from the parents.

When the Council was asked for suggestions on subjects for future meetings, many expressed themselves as desiring to hear more about parent-teacher conferences and report cards. A meeting on these topics was held just before the period set aside for the first school report to parents. The school health program was scheduled for discussion at a subsequent meeting.

Sometimes it has seemed that an insurmountable barrier lies between the school people and the public. These small council groups represented only a small part of the school population, and sometimes the principals expressed the opinion that the people who would have benefited most were not present. The fact that the personnel of the group changes means that moving forward into new areas must take place slowly because the same subjects seems to be of recurrent interest to each new group of parents. However, each new member of the Council counts as one more person informed concerning the program of the school.

A further outgrowth of this attempt to inform parents is the current planning of a series of meetings with the parents of seventh- and eighth-grade children for discussion of such topics as growth characteristics; problems of reading, spelling, and mathematics; the policy of the schools regarding homework; and the importance of giving these adolescents an opportunity to explore as many fields of interest as possible.

No doubt exists in the minds of any of the principals that the time spent in the Parent-Administrative Council has been richly rewarding. The principals are better informed; they are more secure in their beliefs concerning the practices of the schools; they have acquired improved techniques in working with parents; and they practice better public relations. The program may have played a significant part in leading the community to vote 10 to 1 in favor of needed school bonds. Such a vote indicates confidence of the people in their schools.

IN FAVOR OF BLOCKS

KATHERINE TARRANTS, *Student, Sacramento Junior College*
Summer School, 1949

Children like to play with blocks. For many years children who were supplied with blocks derived much satisfaction from their use. The best explanation of this popularity of blocks lies in their ease of use, the speed with which a child can make, at least, a representative reproduction of his idea, even with the old-fashioned small blocks. At first the child's need seems to be met by small blocks; then his need seems to be for larger blocks with which to express his ideas. He needs to make structures large enough so that he can play inside them.

Why are blocks needed so much more now than heretofore? Actually, the child's basic need for adequate materials with which to express his ideas, for materials that he can manipulate successfully, has always existed. Teachers are just recognizing it. How do we know that these flexible materials satisfy a need of children? How many of us have played under a dining-room table with the chairs turned over to form outer walls and rooms, or with pieces of wood from the woodpile used to form rough structures, or have even devised a whole house by outlining several rooms with rows of rocks or dried and fallen leaves? Who has not turned chairs over to make the walls of a store and made change through the back of ladder-back or Windsor chair? Or made a train of all the available chairs, with a ticket seller proudly enthroned behind one of them and importantly pushing his tickets through the "window"? Everyone has done these or similar things. Even Robert Louis Stevenson wrote,

"We built a ship upon the stairs,
All made of the back-bedroom chairs."

Many uses may be found for blocks in schools. One reason they are needed is that today's environment is "finished"—there

is no woodpile at home to go to for material. The dinette table is crowded into a miniature dining room with no space left around it for imaginative play—or, perhaps, dining has been relegated to a mere drop-leaf table in the end of the living room. Few children have stairways to play upon. Occasionally children have a playroom, but who could play house under the tiny playroom table?

Because of the lack of opportunity for this kind of expression and development in the home, the school must supply the necessary movable material and encourage its use. The pace of life today, even in the country, denies children the opportunity to express themselves freely in play at home.

The development of the child's motor ability proceeds, in general, from head to foot and from the large muscles to the smaller. Thus, even before he can stand, the child can manipulate a small block and, through what appear to be aimless movements, increases his eye-hand co-ordination and especially his hand-mouth co-ordination. By the time the child of four or five years enters kindergarten he has for some time been able to use his large muscles freely and he enjoys immensely the feeling of power this gives him. He enjoys the pushing, pulling, lifting, and placing of blocks. These activities increase his ability to use these muscles.

Some of the blocks for children should be large, to give play to the large muscles and to provide an outlet for the child's increasing ability to use these muscles. As skill develops and the child reaches the necessary physical maturity, his small muscles will develop more readily. The alert teacher will know, by watching the child, when he is ready for more complicated or different activity so that he can keep on growing. Perhaps he needs only a few blocks at first until he can handle more materials in building more complicated patterns.

Block play provides many opportunities for the modification of behavior in terms of the present experience of the child. In placing the blocks and in attempting to make structures that are solid and secure, he develops judgment in line and balance. He becomes proficient in knowing just how far he can go in build-

ing up and out and still maintain his structure intact. He satisfies his natural curiosity about these matters with a medium that is unharmed by his errors in judgment—which he quickly learns to correct—and in an environment that acknowledges the validity of his curiosity and helps him to satisfy it.

Play with blocks provides many avenues for mental development. They stimulate the creative expression of children more easily than do clay or paint. Playing with blocks gives satisfying results with much less effort than modeling or painting and with less likelihood of causing feelings of frustration.

Children follow certain steps in developing their use of art materials. Rose Alschuler has listed these steps, as follows:¹

1. Manipulation, just handling
2. Process (doing something more with the material but still nothing that has real form)
3. Pattern
4. Product
5. Use of the product in communicating with others

Usually this pattern progresses in relation to the child's maturity. The two-year-old will chiefly manipulate the blocks; the three-year-old will manipulate them and go on to the process and pattern steps and quite possibly produce a satisfactory product. The four-year-old will go through the same steps; however, the time he spends in the first steps will be short. He will soon be able to build definite things and use them in his play. As a rule, the five-year-old who has had experience with blocks will build something he needs in his play and be able to use it in expression of his ideas and as a means for the exchange of ideas and opinions. He can produce a house, a boat, a barn, a train or plane, a store or a gas station which is reasonably like his idea of it. He can really express his ideas in blocks with greater ease than in any other medium, even language. The five-year-old with no previous experience in use of blocks rapidly reaches this final step in expressing his ideas.

Block play stimulates, augments, and broadens dramatic play. Dramatic play provides the child with many opportunities

¹ Rose H. Alschuler, *Children's Centers*. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1942, p. 43.

for growth. It helps him to grow socially by increasing his knowledge of the world about him. In order to recreate an activity in play he has first to look and see how it is done. "Let's pretend" produces amazingly accurate performances, with differences of opinion settled by firsthand observation. Block play helps the child to grow mentally by teaching him to play, by giving him opportunity to solve problems, by increasing his vocabulary.

The things which children experience—transportation, investigation, social control, and production—are materials not limited to dramatic play or creative expression alone; they are filled with stimulation and content for future study. In the situations that result from dramatic play, the child learns to work rapidly and well, to share materials, to assume responsibility for his part of the activity, and to develop a spirit of fairness in work and play with others. He has opportunity to develop initiative, originality, and self-confidence. His interests in the life about him are enlarged and enriched; his vocabulary grows; and he gains in knowledge and ability to express his ideas.

All children have the urge to play, to dramatize the life of the people around them. The satisfaction of this urge is most important, and, if a degree of freedom is permitted, children will naturally find their way to this mode of expression. Through the activities of dramatic play, physical, mental, and social growth takes place. Children act out their experiences and through this play understand new relationships and reveal incorrect concepts. Thus the teacher may guide them to a better understanding. One of the most important values of dramatic play is that it provides situations where children may learn to live together democratically, with each child making his contribution for the good of all involved, recognizing, appreciating, and evaluating the activity of each.

The teacher should see that the activities are based on the needs of the children to understand the world in which they live. They should be purposeful and should give opportunities for planning, both by individuals and by the group. Concepts should be built which will encourage thinking and going on to new fields of appropriate activity.

The activities of dramatic play furnish the teacher an opportunity for analyzing the behavior of children and for detecting symptoms of emotional maladjustment. The dramatic play of children usually results in a demand for articles to be constructed, for more information, or for experimentation. It is helpful to the teacher in evolving and expanding classroom activities, and learnings result.

The child who has had opportunity to investigate the world around him and become identified with it through reliving his experiences in kindergarten has a firm basis for future attack on the social studies, to say nothing of the incalculable value in personal development and successful, satisfying activity.

Blocks are valuable aids in the carrying out of ideas in dramatic play. Many kinds of blocks have stimulating, challenging possibilities. Floor blocks are necessary in the kindergarten for making satisfactory buildings and small structures in outline. Hollow blocks are indispensable in kindergarten in providing opportunities for real construction. Another type of block can be fastened, either by simple bolts and screws or through slots, into structures that are semipermanent, with openings for doors and windows.

Accessories can make block play more successful and real for the child. Ropes, boards of all lengths, apple boxes, nail kegs, toy boats, cars, and trucks add reality to the expression of ideas. Dress-up clothes—men's and women's hats, pocketbooks, shoes, ties—are good accessory items. Wheel toys, while not useful in themselves as creative material, add much to the interplay of activities and the expression of ideas about transportation.

Each schoolroom should provide storage space for blocks, both indoors and outdoors. Low shelves can be reserved for the larger blocks. Bins or boxes on casters may be used to take the blocks in and out of doors. Smooth packing boxes or large baskets will serve for this purpose.

The initial expense of equipping a kindergarten with an adequate supply of blocks may seem large. Blocks are permanent equipment, however, and will last for many years. They can be cleaned and smoothed at intervals and will serve many kindergarten groups as valuable developmental material.

OUTDOOR WORK AREAS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS: A SURVEY

HOWARD L. ROWE, *Field Representative, School Planning,
California State Department of Education*

Outdoor classrooms or work areas for elementary schools have been advocated for several years. These areas provide additional teaching space just outside the regular classroom, allowing classes to work both indoors and outdoors. Proponents of the outdoor areas claim that more time for children in the fresh air and sunshine and greater freedom of movement will promote physical and mental health. The increased space also seems to offer many advantages in an informal, active program of group living and learning.

California schools have especially welcomed the outdoor classroom because it fits both the climate and the educational philosophy here. During the past ten years more than 50 California school districts, both rural and urban, have built classrooms with outside work areas for approximately 90 elementary schools. Many of the new schools now under construction include this feature.

SCOPE OF THE SURVEY

How satisfactory have these outdoor areas proved in actual school practice? Have they resulted in the advantages claimed for them? The office of School Planning and the office of Elementary Education of the California State Department of Education have been recommending that these areas be included in new elementary school buildings. In May, 1949, it was decided to make a survey to find out how well this feature of school planning was working out in actual practice. The author visited all but six of the districts in the state which had been using the outdoor areas for a year or more, talking with 185 teachers, principals, superintendents, and curriculum directors.

Many interesting reactions and suggestions came from the survey. Of the persons interviewed, 159 definitely favored the construction and use of the work areas. Only 26 had not found the new facilities particularly valuable and were inclined to feel that they were either unnecessary or not worth the money. It is interesting to note that in every school where the district superintendent or principal felt the need of the areas, he reported that nearly one hundred per cent of the teachers were making good use of them.

Among the school districts visited were 5 in interior California, 12 in the San Francisco Bay area, and 32 in the Los Angeles-San Diego area. The southern California districts were generally more favorable toward the use of outdoor areas than those in the northern districts.

All persons interviewed agreed on the need of outside areas for kindergartens. Very few seventh- and eighth-grade classes had rooms equipped with outdoor work space. The findings of the survey are therefore confined almost entirely to grades 1 to 6.

PURPOSE OF THE SURVEY

The purpose of the survey was to get direct reactions from school people which would guide future planning of school plants. On visits to 97 schools, the interviewer looked at the work areas, discussed their use with teachers and administrators, and observed classes at work wherever possible. These were the questions the author attempted to answer on each visit:

1. Are the areas being used?
2. If not, why not?
3. If they are being used, how are they used and to what extent?
4. What grades are using them?
5. What is the size of the work areas?
6. What type of surfacing do they have?
7. Is there any shelter from sun or rain?
8. How much privacy is provided for each class group?
9. Are there running water, storage space, workbenches?
10. Is there any garden area? Lawn?
11. What type of division is used between areas?

12. Is each area shielded from the public or from other wings of the building?
13. What are the reactions of administrators to the work areas?
14. What are the reactions of teachers to the work areas?
15. What are the recommendations of the local school people as to physical characteristics of the areas which would facilitate their most effective use?
16. What other information is available which will help the Office of School Planning to assist schools and architects in planning better outdoor work areas?

FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY

This is what the survey found, as the questions above were answered.

1. The outdoor areas were being used by more than 90 per cent of the teachers who had them available.
2. In the few cases where the areas were not being used, the reasons were varied. Some were not being used because of location or lack of shelter, which allowed cold winds to sweep across them; some because the administration did not approve; some because the school philosophy tended to encourage more drill and recitation from desks and to discourage active learning enterprises; and some because facilities and tools were lacking to make effective use of the areas.
3. Some teachers made extensive use of extremely simple areas. However, the greatest amount of use was being made of areas that had been equipped for a number of activities and had been made adaptable for use during many hours of the day and during most of the year. The following uses for the area were mentioned by one or more of the teachers visited:

For the entire class—Folk dancing, construction, dramatic play, dramatizations, rhythms, story hour, gardening, science study, nature study, library reading, oral reading, pets, discussion, lunch, block play, art, physical education, singing games, clay modeling, sketching and painting.

For group work—Many of the same things as the entire class may do. In addition, group planning, committee work, discussion groups, easel work, oral rehearsals, practice on musical instruments, group study, special help from student or teacher, library reading.

For individual work—In addition to the activities listed above, public speaking practice, individual help from fellow pupil or student teacher, individual study.

Teachers find the area usable for physical education when the regular game area is muddy or wet; for controlled lunch time where no cafeteria is available; for jacks and other games for small groups, especially for those who must stay out of the more strenuous large-group activity. The outdoor space is used in many ways to ease the restraints of indoor classroom living both for individuals and for the group, allowing children to move about freely, relaxing the necessity for quiet, and providing for a break in the tension of a hot or difficult day.

4. The most extensive use of outdoor areas by the greatest number of teachers was in grades 1 to 4. Many teachers of grades 5 and 6 also made good use of their areas. Most teachers of grades 7 and 8 did not have outdoor areas, but when available for these grades such areas were used much of the time. Double sessions tended to reduce use of areas.
5. The areas varied from a small concrete slab to an area as large as the classroom. In southern California the paved areas generally were 15 or 16 feet deep and the width of the classroom. Kindergarten areas were almost always larger than this and were fenced.
6. Most areas were surfaced with asphaltic mixtures such as are commonly referred to as "black top" or with concrete. Several were surfaced with brick. Some had lawn, and several had a combination of hard surface and lawn. Garden areas were provided in some schools, either at the rear, on one side, or on both sides of the work space. One school had no special surfacing.
7. Only one work area in six had overhead shelter. This was of many types, including trees, roof overhang, and specially constructed covers over part of the area.
8. Some method of dividing one area from the next was used in about 60 per cent of the schools, but only 25 per cent actually provided any real privacy for the class.
9. Less than 10 per cent had areas with any outdoor storage facilities. A few more had water, with either a sink or a tray. The areas in 15 per cent of the schools had permanent workbenches.
10. About half the areas had some type of garden space.

11. Divisions between work areas included concrete walls, brick walls, stake fencing, hedge, shrubbery, and low planting.
12. Few schools had protection for the class from the public or from adjoining building wings.
13. Of the 30 superintendents interviewed, 25 felt that the outdoor work area was of definite value for the teaching program; five were indifferent or could see little value in it. The curriculum directors were strongly in favor of the work areas, for all grades through the eighth.
14. Of the 99 teachers interviewed, 84 were enthusiastic about the outdoor work area, many of this group stating that it was essential; 15 teachers were indifferent, feeling that the area was unnecessary.
15. Recommendation of teachers and principals, although not unanimous, strongly favored the following features for the outdoor area:
 - a. A surfaced, smooth area, well drained.
 - b. Space large enough to carry on an active program, deeper than the fifteen feet found in many southern California schools
 - c. Outside storage facilities, workbenches, and water
 - d. Garden strip
 - e. Shelter for at least part of the area
 - f. Grass beyond the surfaced area
 - g. More privacy for classes

CONCLUSIONS

The outdoor areas are being used. There seems to be no doubt of their usefulness in all elementary grades, although they are available at present almost entirely to primary and intermediate grades.

Physical conditions and equipment largely determine the amount of use made of these areas by teachers. Shelter should be provided for part of each area, and prevailing winds should be taken into account in planning their location. A workbench, water, and outside storage facilities increase the usefulness of the area.

Outdoor work areas should be approximately the size of the classroom. Floors of work area and classroom should be on the same level, both for safety and for ease in moving equipment. The area should be located where the teacher can supervise it while she is in the classroom.

Undoubtedly, more privacy for each outdoor classroom would greatly increase its use. Hedges and fences dividing work areas should be at least five feet high, extending far enough to provide real privacy.

Use of the outdoor areas is increasing, as teachers see their possibilities and learn to use them effectively. Wherever the philosophy of a school calls for active and purposeful learning experiences for children, this additional teaching space in the fresh air and sunshine becomes a highly valuable educational resource.

EMILY'S STORY

AS TOLD BY HER TEACHER

Recorded by *CONSTANCE CHANDLER, Co-ordinator of Research and Guidance, Ventura County*

"My first impression of 10-year-old Emily came from her cumulative record card as I read it a few days before meeting my fourth-grade class last fall. That folder, with its assortment of facts and opinions, made me aware that here was a child who would need help and understanding. Her score in the Progressive Reading test administered in the spring of the previous year showed a reading grade placement of only 1.6, although her attendance had been good and she had been in our school four years, ever since kindergarten. If the test data were accurate, Emily had a reading handicap. I glanced next at the intelligence-test data and found that Emily had taken the Pintner-Cunningham test in the first grade and it had showed an I.Q. of 130. However, Emily had been retained in the first grade because of 'immaturity.' Teachers in earlier grades had noted that Emily was 'obedient,' 'slow-learning,' 'trying hard to please.' The only facts recorded about the family were that her father was an engineer, her mother a housewife, and there were two older sisters.

"In the rush of the first few days of school I could pay little attention to Emily. There was the usual need for organization, complicated by the fact that there were three boys in my class who were trouble-makers from the start. Teachers are criticized for spending too much time with children who present discipline problems and neglecting those who are overly quiet, but none of my 43 could have done anything at all if I hadn't set out at the beginning to try to understand and win over that antagonistic trio. So Emily had to wait. I soon noticed, however, that she was a fragile blonde with a restrained manner and a wistful

expression. She had been seated at the rear of the room, seldom spoke, and never caused any difficulty. An informal oral reading test, given before dividing the class into groups, showed that the reading achievement test of the previous year had been rather accurate in Emily's case, for she had practically no sight vocabulary. On the other hand, she did quite well in arithmetic and her painting was the most interesting done by any child in the room. She always selected pastel hues and filled every spare moment creating fairies and gnomes and other figures of fantasy. They reminded me of Walt Disney's characters, except for their extreme delicacy.

"For the first few weeks the most I could do for the child was to place her in the lowest reading group, give her every opportunity to paint, praise her a great deal for her art work and arithmetic, and try in my friendliest manner to encourage her to participate in group discussions. However, this program was meeting with little success, aside from the fact that Emily seemed to be developing a great fondness for me. She would ask to help me after school, would stand by me during game period until I practically forced her to join a group, and would smile rather shyly whenever I looked her way.

"About the fourth week of school I decided to construct a sociogram, in order to find out more about the structure of my class. I asked the children to write down the names of the two children they would most like to sit near. Late that night when I had finished drawing the chart, there was Emily, the only isolated, unchosen one in the whole room aside from a non-English speaking youngster who had just come to this country as a displaced person. As I might have guessed, Emily's first choice was an extrovertive and gay girl who was the leader of the largest clique. Sally was bright, popular, and attractive to look at. No wonder Emily wanted to be near her. But her second choice surprised me—a drab, underprivileged little girl who was chosen only once and who seemed nearly as timid as Emily herself. It was as if Emily had said: 'Sally represents all I would like to be; but Rose is undoubtedly what I am and what I shall have to be content with.' The sociometric pattern with its circles

and arrows showed pictorially the feelings of liking that made up a large part of the atmosphere of my classroom, and by looking at it I knew too well how alone Emily was. Without having done anything to offend, she was rejected. Little wonder that she did not take part in discussions, that she did not want to play the games.

"The next clue to Emily's problem came with the inauguration of our audiometric testing program. After the group testing of hearing had been done in our room, those who fell below a certain score were given individual tests. I had never thought of Emily as hard of hearing and no other teacher had made such an observation, but I soon learned that she had been given an individual audiometric test and was due for an otological examination. A change of seating was immediately recommended. The discovery of Emily's hearing loss and the observation that she still was making practically no progress with her reading led me next to request an individual intelligence test. Because of the hearing loss, the psychometrist gave a new test, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, and found that the child's verbal I.Q. was 115 and her performance I.Q. was 147, with a total of 135. So Emily was bright after all, although she was handicapped in the use of words. I decided after that to try an experiment. Emily wanted individual attention, my attention. And Emily had the intellectual capacity for reading, although the traditional methods had failed. One summer I had studied remedial techniques and had learned something of the kinesthetic method of teaching reading. If I could take half an hour with her after school each day, Emily might respond to the story writing, the tracing of words, and particularly to the attention and encouragement she would get from me. She was delighted and we began.

"For the first report of the year in our school, we hold conferences with parents instead of sending home report cards. Shortly after I had begun my individual work with Emily, I scheduled a conference with her mother. I was eager to meet Mrs. X and see what she would tell me about Emily. However, I was not prepared for what I saw when the mother entered the room. She was large, rather mannish-looking, and very dominant

in personality. One could hardly call our being together a conference, since she did practically all the talking. She told me what a disappointment Emily had been to her parents because of her laziness and failure to read, how bright and popular the older girls were, and how hard she had been working with Emily on her reading night after night at home. Then she asked me why Emily was doing such 'baby-stuff' after school with me instead of learning her phonics. The most I could do was to point out to her that Emily was a bright child, that it wasn't laziness that had kept her from reading, that this new method capitalized upon her excellent ability to use her hands as well as upon seeing and hearing, and that Emily was extremely talented artistically. And I urged the mother to give Emily a chance to learn in this way and to stop asking the child to study reading at home. I had no way of knowing whether anything at all had been accomplished in this encounter, and I felt rather discouraged as the mother left the room.

"Emily responded beautifully to our individual afternoon sessions. She showed the same creativity in her story-writing that she had revealed in drawing. And in between writing and reading, she would talk to me. I heard about her dog, her sisters, and her quiet father. Little was said about Mother. Emily was getting along better in the classroom, too. When I found that her seat had to be changed, it gave me a good excuse to place her next to Rose. I felt that it might be easy for her to develop some kind of friendship with this youngster. I asked Emily to help Rose with her arithmetic, for one thing. Rose responded, and the two became increasingly friendly. Later I had a talk with Sally. She was directing a play that the class had written, and I suggested she ask Emily to draw sets and costumes. The results were highly successful.

"One afternoon about a month later a man came to see me at the school. He was tall, thin, ascetic-looking. I was quite surprised when he introduced himself as Mr. X. He said that he wanted to express his appreciation for what I was doing for Emily. I found him quiet and gentle in manner and very easy

to talk with. From our visit I learned that the two older daughters were more like their mother in personality, whereas Emily was quite similar to him. However, the nature of his work had taken him away from home for long periods of time. These absences had left Emily rather alone, psychologically speaking. Also, Mr. X admitted that he, too, had been disturbed about Emily's failure to read. He valued reading and the intellectual life highly, and it had hurt his pride to think that this daughter who resembled him in so many ways was perhaps not very intelligent after all. Now he realized that it was not lack of intelligence that had kept her from reading. We discussed her hearing loss and he told me that she was having treatments and that the physician felt that her hearing would be restored. He also spoke of a film, *Problem Children*, shown at a P.T.A. meeting, which had helped to make him aware of his full responsibility as a father. He said that in the past he had tended to leave the care of the children in his wife's hands, but that he now realized he must take a more active role with respect to Emily. We discussed her needs for affection, praise, and attention. I felt when he left my room that afternoon that Emily's battle was nearly over.

"The rest of Emily's story in the fourth grade was a happy one. She progressed amazingly with her reading and was almost up to grade at the end of the year. This progress was undoubtedly due in part to her intelligence but also to her restored self-confidence and to her eager desire to learn. She began taking books home of her own accord and her father would give her the words she didn't know and then write them down in her notebook for me to check later. Her art work for the play improved her status in the class and she began to feel more comfortable about participating in discussion and in games. Her friendship with Rose grew and she also was admitted into Sally's group as a loyal follower. This transition was helped by Sally's inviting her, at my suggestion, to join the Girl Scouts. I had grown very fond of Emily and was sorry to lose her when June came, but there remained a very real sense of satisfaction in having contributed what I could toward helping Emily find herself."

COMMENTS BY THE RECORDER

Emily's story is a simple one that might be repeated, with minor variations, by any teacher in any classroom. However, every such story could not have so happy an ending, even with the help of a teacher like Emily's. Too often there are too many things that cannot be overcome. A wise teacher, like the one who told this story, will do what she can to help each child and then realistically accept the fact that some children's problems either require the help of others or are insoluble because of conditions that are beyond remedy.

The key to this success story lies in the genuineness of the teacher's concern for the total adjustment of each child in her classroom. She was also aware of the significance of symptoms and knew well that the quiet child may truly be a problem to herself, if not to other people. She was alert to clues that might point to the causes of maladjustment. She recognized the basic needs of belonging, status, self-esteem, and acceptance by others. She was generous with her own time and energy. She was familiar with modern guidance techniques, such as the sociogram, as well as with different approaches to the acquisition of reading skills. And finally, she was able to use other resources than her own skill and ingenuity—the strength within the family, children in the classroom, the psychometrist, and character-building groups. All of these attributes helped to make her a “guidance-minded teacher.”

LENNOX SCHOOL DISTRICT DEVELOPS A HEALTH GUIDANCE PROGRAM

MOLLIE G. McKEON, R. N., *School Nurse, Lennox Elementary
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In September, 1948, the Lennox Elementary School District was faced with a rapidly growing pupil enrollment, instructional offerings to be expanded, and a health program to be established—all to be accomplished with limited funds. How could the administrators give additional help to the classroom teacher? One way would be to help the classroom teacher to be aware of the health status of each child. Administrative meetings which included the superintendent of the district, two principals, the director of research and guidance, the business assistant, and the school nurse brought out the following points:

1. Testing of vision and hearing was disclosing many children with impairments.
2. Guidance in emotional and educational problems was hampered by the lack of accurate information regarding the physical status of the children.
3. Many children probably had defects that might retard learning, but finding the defects was beyond the province of the nurse.
4. A physician employed by the school would be able to determine accurately the physical status of the school child.

As a result of these findings, the Board of Trustees granted funds for the employment of a physician. The administrative group felt that a comprehensive study would be necessary before the physician was employed, as the maximum use of his time and findings would be necessary. Materials were requested from school districts employing school physicians, and the experience of an adjoining district was utilized. Consideration was given to

the recommendations from the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools Division of Health and Physical Education, as set forth in *The Physician in the School Health Program*.¹ These materials had to be interpreted in terms of the particular needs in Lennox district.

After the material available had been studied, broad general objectives were set up as follows:

1. Health guidance should be stressed instead of health service.
2. Guidance toward correction of remediable defects should be as important as finding the defects.
3. Consideration should be given to the mental, physical, and emotional factors involved in health.
4. The health guidance program should be an integral part of the total school program.

After these objectives had been established, the mechanics of the program had to be determined. The amount of time for service by a physician was decided on the basis of the amount of nursing time available. Service of a physician for one half-day a week was deemed advisable. Criteria for selecting children to be examined by the physician were determined on the basis of the amount of physician's time plus the consideration of the overall objectives. The administrators felt that examination of the first, third, and sixth grades would be desirable but they realized that with a total enrollment of 1,900 children this could not be done by a physician in attendance only one half-day per week and a nurse four days per week. Thus it seemed advisable to examine at first only those children with special needs and, if enough time were available, to concentrate next on the first grades. Children classed as having special needs were those in our special training class, the children referred by the teachers to the director of guidance and research for special study, the

¹ "The Physician in the School Health Program." Recommendations of a conference sponsored by the Bureau of Health Education of the American Medical Association in October, 1947, attended by 120 leading health educators from state departments of education, state departments of health, state education associations, state medical societies and associations, and national voluntary health agencies. Los Angeles: Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, Division of Health and Physical Education. Pp. 4 (mimeographed).

children who had been found to have a hearing loss, the children with observable defects such as cerebral palsy, orthopedic deviations, the rheumatic fever cases, and the children who in the opinion of the nurse needed examinations, such as those excessively overweight, underweight, etc.

By the time our program was ready to begin, the Los Angeles County Health Department had established a Rheumatic Fever Diagnostic Clinic in our area; therefore, the 32 children referred to that clinic were not examined in our school. Eight other children were referred to that clinic, however, as a result of physical examinations in the school. Lennox school had otological clinics until November, 1948, and all of the children examined in those clinics appeared not to be in need of another examination. The majority of children examined this year were those in the special training class and those needing special guidance. Several children with orthopedic defects were known by the nurse to be under medical supervision. Some children with orthopedic defects, whose parents are aware of the defects and of the medical resources available, are not under medical care for reasons beyond the powers of the school.

In selecting the school physician, it was thought that one located within the area of the Lennox school district would be desirable as he might help as a consultant for the much-needed health council; that, however, the most important criterion was the physician's interest in establishing a sound health guidance program. An adequate salary was offered in order to help insure the stability of the program. The school physician for Lennox district was selected on the basis of educational background, experience in school health, and interest in children.

The functions and responsibilities assigned to the participants in the program were taken from those recommended in the handbook of the Division of Child Guidance and Special Services for Orange County.¹ Before the program went into effect, the Co-ordinator of Health Education, Office of Los Angeles

¹ *Handbook, Division of Child Guidance and Special Services*. Santa Ana, California: Orange County Schools, Section 4, pp. 6-8.

County Superintendent of Schools, was consulted and her suggestions have been incorporated in this report.

The health guidance service began February 2, 1949. Ten conference sessions have been held and at this writing 111 children have been examined. Only 10 children were examined without a parent being present. Two of these children have working mothers who are the sole support of the family and cannot afford to take any time off from their work. An attempt is made to examine all children in one family at one time but it has happened that two of the children had previous dental appointments that conflicted, and one child had chickenpox. One boy left the school grounds and could not be located. Four mothers attended the physical examinations of one or more of their children but were unable to come the second time when another child was examined. Four mothers refused to come for the examination but the needs of their children were such that we felt that whether their parents came or not they should be examined so that we would know how to meet their needs.

The teacher's observation record is given to the physician, and the nurse contributes pertinent data known to her. The physician then has a private conference with the mother while the nurse helps the child undress. She then weighs and measures him and takes his temperature, pulse, and respiration. Physician and parent join child and nurse and the examination takes place. The child dresses and returns to the classroom while the physician notes his findings. A conference is held with the parent and recommendations and referrals are given as needed. Each child is an individual problem, requiring individual approach and handling.

Some parents resist the recommendations in spite of the skill and adaptability of the doctor. One mother, when told her children needed their tonsils removed, said she had read that removal of tonsils was harmful and that she had more confidence in what she read than what the physician told her. However, a few days later she telephoned to say that the school doctor was probably the best judge of her children's needs and asked for a

referral. She was referred to an appropriate agency for Crippled Children Services.¹

X-ray of the wrists of one child had been advised by the school doctor in order to determine the maturity of the child. The mother said her child had "adequate medical supervision." Later she telephoned the school to say that she had spent \$25 for an examination and that the doctor found the child in perfect health. The classroom teacher reports he is on a special diet under a physician's orders.

One mother said she had so much responsibility in managing her home that she could not possibly carry out the recommendations given for her stepdaughter, adding that the child's father never assumed any responsibility. Nevertheless, she telephoned the next day to say the child would be absent for a week to have her tonsils out, as had been recommended.

Parents unable to accept the medical recommendations are in the minority. Most of them are grateful for the service and agree to follow the recommendations. Follow-up on the part of the nurse will probably not be difficult because most of the parents either call in, come in, or send notes to tell what they have done. Forty of the 111 children examined, one week after the last examination date, are known to have received the medical care advised or to have appointments to receive this care. Thirty-five are known who have not yet secured needed care. Some of these will do so later, but circumstances prevent them from doing it now. Those who will not be able to afford care are referred to Crippled Children Services so that no child is deprived of medical care because of lack of finances. Service clubs provide funds for medical care not included in Crippled Children Services. The majority of families prefer to go to part-pay clinic facilities or their own private physicians.

The examination data and recommendations are typed in triplicate; one copy stays in the nurse's office, one goes to the principal and thence to the classroom teacher to be used by her

¹ One of the services for children conducted by the State Department of Public Health through or in co-operation with local public and private health agencies. Clinics are held; hospitalization, medical and surgical care, and appliances are provided. In Los Angeles County, Crippled Children Services are handled by the Department of Charities.

and later to be filed in the cumulative record; and the third copy goes to the director of guidance and research. This procedure is in accord with the recommendation of the office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools:

"... physicians should appreciate that one of the most important functions of health appraisal procedures is to provide information that will help teachers to understand their pupils and the health problems related to their education, growth and development, and that this information could best be given through the teacher-nurse or physician-teacher-nurse conference. Medical findings must be properly interpreted to the teacher and she must be thoroughly aware of the necessity for keeping many such findings confidential because of possibly serious effects upon the social life of the child should they be divulged and discussed."¹

An evaluation conference was held at which the group expressed the feeling that a weakness of the program has been the lack of provision for adequate growth of the teacher. This is due largely to a school plant with widely separated facilities where it is difficult to arrange for a teacher to be relieved of her regular classroom duties so that she can attend conferences. In spite of the heavy examination schedule, some of the physician's time has been spent in conferences with teachers and in presenting at a general faculty meeting a summary of the work accomplished. Plans for next year include a one-day workshop on the health guidance program before school begins. There will be fewer special cases next year since many of them were cared for this year, and there will be time to concentrate on health guidance for the entire first grade. The children will be referred for examinations from one classroom at a time and physician-teacher-nurse conferences can be held each week.

In spite of inadequate provision for the teachers' growth, there has been a gratifying increase in interest and understanding on their part. The large number of satisfied parents seems to indicate success for the program. Naturally, if the program is to progress, constant evaluation will be necessary. The success

¹ "The Physician in the School Health Program," p. 3.

attained so far seems to be due to several factors, some of which are the following:

1. Careful identification and recognition of pupils' needs.
2. Adequate planning by the administrative group.
3. Complete understanding, by persons involved, of their functions and responsibilities.
4. Understanding of the problem on the part of the Board of Trustees, who have provided an adequate salary to insure good, professional service.

A summary of the findings of the first 111 examinations conducted in 1949 is presented in tabular form.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS IN 111 HEALTH EXAMINATIONS
CONDUCTED IN TWO SCHOOLS IN LENNOX ELEMENTARY
SCHOOL DISTRICT, INGLEWOOD, 1949

	<i>Number of Cases</i>
Need tonsillectomy and adenoidectomy	58
Need dental care.....	23
Need glandular check-up.....	13
Need adenoids checked	8
Need eye examination by specialist	8
Need special guidance	6
Show evidence of anemia	6
Need examination for sinusitis	6
Need special exercises	6
Have emotional problems.....	6
Need complete blood count	5
Show evidence of rheumatic fever.....	4
Show evidence of enlarged heart.....	4
Need more security at home.....	3
Show evidence of allergy.....	2
Need improved home hygiene.....	2
Need special muscle development.....	2
Parent needs psychiatric help.....	2
Need cod liver oil.....	1
Needs wrist X-ray for maturity evidence.....	1
Needs circumcision	1

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